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# Enhanced photocatalytic hydrogen peroxide production at a solid-liquid-air interface via microenvironment engineering



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#### ABSTRACT

Photocatalytic oxygen reduction is a promising strategy to generate  $H_2O_2$  in a low-energy input and more sustainable way. Despite great progress have made in photocatalyst design, the rate-limiting step that poor accessibility of the  $O_2$  to photocatalysts in water remains unexplored. Here, we design a solid-liquid-air triphasic interface over a melamine foam to boost the interfacial  $O_2$  transportation. A Wenzel-Cassie state coexists in a hydrophobic interface and form a tubular confined space with a thickness of  $100~\mu m$ , which allows the  $O_2$  directly transferred to the photocatalyst from the air, greatly boost the formation of  $H_2O_2$ . In addition, a tubular confined microenvironment formed on the surface greatly enhances oxygen diffusion, and suppressed the unwanted decomposition of  $H_2O_2$ . This surface microenvironment engineering resulted in a 10-fold enhancement in the photosynthesis  $H_2O_2$  compared to the traditional solid-liquid diphase system, pinpointing the necessary  $O_2$  mass diffusion for photocatalytic  $H_2O_2$  generation.

#### 1. Introduction

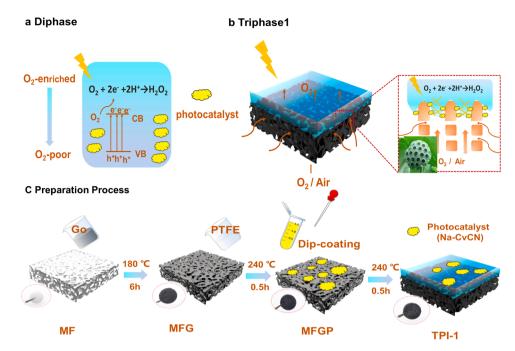
Hydrogen peroxide ( $H_2O_2$ ) is a versatile and clean oxidant and widely used in wastewater remediation [1–3], chemical industry [4,5], fuel cell [6–8], and disinfection [9–11]. So far, the energy- and waste-intensive anthraquinone (AQ) process is still accounted for more than 95% in  $H_2O_2$  production [1,12]. The deficiencies of the AQ process are motivating to develop alternative synthesis methods in a low-energy input and more sustainable way [13–15]. The photocatalytic oxygen reduction, as a green process, can proceed by a two-electron process (2e-ORR) to generate  $H_2O_2$  ( $O_2 + 2e^- + 2H^+ \rightarrow H_2O_2$ ,  $O_2/H_2O_2 = 0.695$  V vs. NHE), which has garnered huge attention as it just requires water and oxygen as the basic building materials [16–18].

Until now, most of the research has focused on the properties of photocatalysts, such as the selectivity of oxygen reduction [19–21], photogenerated electron transfer and separation [5,16,22,23] to realize the synthesis of  $\rm H_2O_2$  via the  $\rm 2e^-$  ORR process while maintaining high photocatalytic activity. Generally, the photocatalytic synthesis of  $\rm H_2O_2$  is carried out in a solid-liquid diphase environment (Scheme 1a) with  $\rm O_2$  bubbling into solution [24–26]. The product concentration of  $\rm H_2O_2$  is still largely retarded. The low production of  $\rm H_2O_2$  can be attributed to the following aspects. First, in the diphase system, the low oxygen

concentration and diffusion coefficient cause the deficient accessibility of photocatalyst to combine with oxygen. The solubility of oxygen in water is only 8 mg/L at room pressure and temperature [6,27,28], resulting in retarded kinetics of photocatalytic  $H_2O_2$  formation. Secondly, the powder dispersed in the solution will cause unavoidable decomposition of the generated  $H_2O_2$ , resulting in a loss of overall output [29-32]. Despite great progress have made in photocatalyst development and design, one of the rate-limiting step that poor accessibility of the  $O_2$  to photocatalysts in water remains largely unexplored.

To overcome the problem of mass transfer of oxygen, the great success of gas diffusion electrode in the application in electrocatalytic  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  reduction has inspired us to develop of the photocatalytic interface. In this work, we presented a tubular confined microenvironment in the superhydrophobic interface to enhance  $\mathrm{O}_2$  diffusion, and inhibit  $\mathrm{H}_2\mathrm{O}_2$  decomposition. A loose, porous melamine foam (MF), coating through graphene and polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) to form a hydrophobic porous skeleton structure, is used as substrate. The gas will quickly transfer through the hydrophobic side into the reaction interface. The graphitic carbon nitride with Na doping and N defect (Na-CvCN), a high-performance  $2e^-$  ORR catalyst in our previous report [33], is employed as a typical photocatalyst. Based on the results of scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and X-ray micro-computed tomography (Micro-CT), a

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Scheme 1. Schematic illustration of Diphase and Triphase interface. (a) The conventional diphase reaction system; (b) Tubular confined microenvironment in super-hydrophobic reaction microenvironment; (c) Illustration of the TPI-1 fabrication process and the corresponding digital images, respectively. The concentration of GO and PTFE is 3 and 3 mg/mL, respectively.

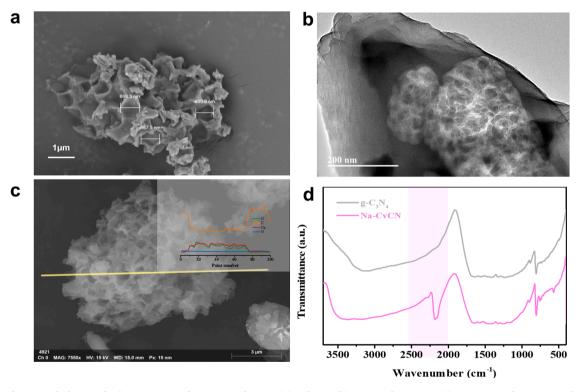


Fig. 1. The surface morphology and microstructure of Na-CvCN. The SEM (a) and TEM (b) images of Na-CvCN. (c) SEM image of Na-CvCN and corresponding element intensity along the yellow line (inset); (d) FTIR spectra of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and Na-CvCN.

hole-rich structure can be observed, which facilitates the rapid diffusion of air to the catalytic interface. Confocal laser scanning microscopy (CLSM) tests have shown that the Wenzel-Cassie state coexists in a hydrophobic interface and form a tubular confined space with a thickness of about 100  $\mu m.$  In addition,  $H_2O_2$  produced in the channel can spread rapidly into the aqueous solution, avoiding decomposition in contact with the catalyst, thus greatly reducing the decomposition coefficient.

This triphase system can provide more inspiration for the development of a high-efficient catalytic interface for photocatalytic reaction.

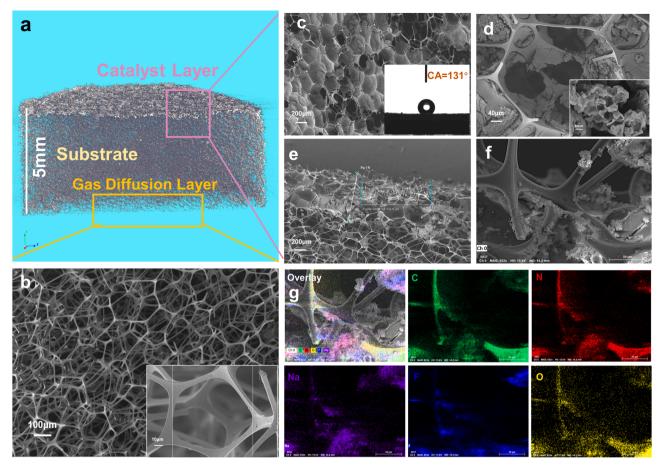


Fig. 2. The surface morphology and microstructure of the TPI-1. (a) The micro-CT image of Na-CvCN@MFGP; (b)The SEM images of MF and enlarge part (inset); (c) SEM image of MFGP and corresponding water contact angle (inset); (d) SEM image of the MFGP coated with Na-CvCN and the morphology of Na-CvCN (inset); (e) SEM image of cross-section of Na-CvCN@MFGP; (f, g) SEM image of Na-CvCN@MFGP and the corresponding element mapping.

## 2. Experimental section

#### 2.1. Materials and characterization

All materials and chemical reagents were purchased commercially and used without further purification. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was performed on SU-8000 (Hitachi, Tokyo) to characterize the morphology of interface. X-ray diffraction (XRD) was measured on a Bruker D8 Advance with Cu K $\alpha$  radiation. UV–vis diffuse reflectance spectra (DRS) were conducted on a UV–vis spectrophotometer (Shimadzu, UV-2550) with BaSO4 as a reference. Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR, Thermo, America) was used to analyze the functional groups. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was conducted on an Thermo Scientific K-Alpha + (America) to analysis the surface chemical compositions. Water contact angle (WCA) were measured on an OSA Optical Surface Analyzer-OSA200-B. X-ray Micro-CT was used to analyze the internal composition of the substrate material. Confocal laser scanning microscopy (CLSM) (Zeiss LSM 880) was applied to observe the structure of TPI-1 interface.

#### 2.2. Preparation of photocatalysts

The samples of g- $C_3N_4$  and Na-CvCN were synthesized following our previous reports, and the precursor dose and yield of catalysts are given in Table S1 (Supporting information) [33–35]. For g- $C_3N_4$ , 10 g melamine was calcined at 550 °C for 4 h in the muffle with a ramp rate of 2.3 °C/min. And the resulting yellow solids was ground into powder and calcined at 500 °C for 2 h. As for Na-CvCN, 2 g DCDA and 10 g NaCl were dissolved in 100 mL of ultrapure water. After keeping stirring over

night, the mixture was frozen with liquid nitrogen and then freeze-dried to obtain white powder. The calcined process was as completed at 550 °C in Ar atmosphere for 4 h with a heating rate of 2.3 °C/min. The resulting yellow powder was finely ground and washed with water to remove any water-soluble impurities. After carefully washed, the product was vacuum dried (60 °C for 12 h). Since we have evaluated the photocatalytic  $\rm H_2O_2$  properties of Na-CvCN and g-C\_3N\_4 in our previous work [33], in this experiment, NaCv-CN was selected as the model photocatalyst.

# 2.3. Fabrication of triphase interface

The fabrication process of TPI-1 is shown in Scheme 1c, where the Na-CvCN was immobilized on the surface of modified melamine foam (MF, 5-mm thick). After ultrasonically cleaning in water and ethanol for 15 min, the cleaned MF was soaked in GO suspension (3 mg/mL) for 10 min, then taken out to dry at 180 °C for 6 h. The obtained rGO@MF (MFG) was soaked in PTFE suspension (3 mg/mL) for 5 min, and then calcined at 240 °C for 0.5 h to prepare PTFE coated rGO@MF(MFGP). Appropriate amount of Na-CvCN was ultrasonically dispersed in a mixture of water and ethanol (4:1 vol ratio) to form ink (5 mg/mL), and different amount ink (50, 100, and 150 µL) was coated on the side of MFGP to form a catalytic layer. Finally, the Na-CvCN@MFGP was calcined at 240 °C for 0.5 h. The amount of Na-CvCN in the catalyst layer is calculated about 0.56  $\pm$  0.03 mg when coating 100  $\mu L$  ink. Unless specifically mentioned in this article, this load amount is the default value. In order to make a detailed comparison, we have prepared another two different three-phase catalytic surface interfaces (Fig. S1). TPI-2 was prepared in the same way as TPI-1, the only difference was

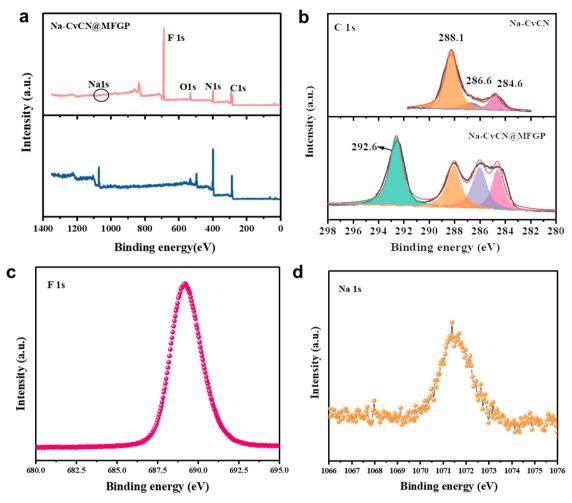


Fig. 3. The XPS survey spectra (a) of Na-CvCN and Na-CvCN@MFGP. The high resolution C1s spectra (b) of Na-CvCN and Na-CvCN@MFGP. The high resolution F1s (c) and Na 1s spectra (d) of Na-CvCN@MFGP.

that diffusion channel was blocked the for experiment. **TPI-3** (Fig. S2) was prepared in a similar way to **TPI-1**, the difference is that replacing MFGP with carbon fiber cloth, and the temperature of calcination changes to  $360\,^{\circ}$ C.

#### 2.4. Photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production

The photocatalytic  $H_2O_2$  generation were conducted in a homemade reactor (Fig. S3, 25 mm  $\times$  25 mm  $\times$  40 mm). 10 mL mixture (different ratios of ethanol and water) was used as reaction solution. The portion of TPI-1,2,3 that coated with Na-CvCN was immersed into reaction solution, while the other side (without Na-CvCN) was exposed to gas chamber. The default experimental state is that both the gas diffusion side and the solution side are exposed in the air. If necessary,  $N_2$  or  $O_2$  will be injected into gas chamber to change the atmosphere of the side of diffusion layer. It is noted that during the test of TPI-2, a rubber pad is required to block the channel between gas chamber and the MFGP. Control experiments based on a conventional two-phase system where the TPI-1 is completely submerged in water were also carried out. 300 W Xe lamp (equipped with AM 1.5 G) was used as a light resource. The concentration of  $H_2O_2$  was determined by the N, N-diethyl-1,4-phenyl-ene-diamine (DPD) method.

#### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. Characterization of triphase system

The graphitic carbon nitride with Na doping and N defect (Na-CvCN) is achieved by using NaCl as a hard template, after calcining the mixture of dimeric cyanamide (DCDA) and NaCl. SEM is firstly used to characterize the morphology of obtained photocatalys. Na-CvCN shows a rich porous structure with a pore size of about 650 nm (Fig. 1a). The TEM image further shows that the honeycomb-like pore structure of Na-CVCN exists and the pore walls are about 2-5 nm (Fig. 1b). This unique hierarchical structure provides favorable conditions for the capture and diffusion of oxygen molecules on the surface of Na-CVCN [36]. Through SEM mapping analysis (Fig. 1c), the intensity of element C, N, O, Na increases with the yellow line across Na-CvCN (Fig. 1c inset). It is worth noting that there is no signal of Cl element, which indicates that Na element is successfully doped into the framework of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, not in the form of NaCl attached on the surface of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>. Further, the X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern of Na-CvCN exhibits distinctive changes compared to pristine g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (Fig. S4). The intensity of (002) peak of Na-CvCN greatly decreases, and the (001) peak is disappeared, indicating the reaction of NaCl and DCDA during calcining process. In addition, the FTIR spectroscopy of Na-CvCN shows a new and strong peak appeared at 2180 cm<sup>-1</sup>, which is attributed to the cyano group (-C≡N). This indicates that there is a defect of N in the structure of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, resulting in a cyano group. In our previous report, the interaction between Na doping and cyano group makes Na-CvCN superior

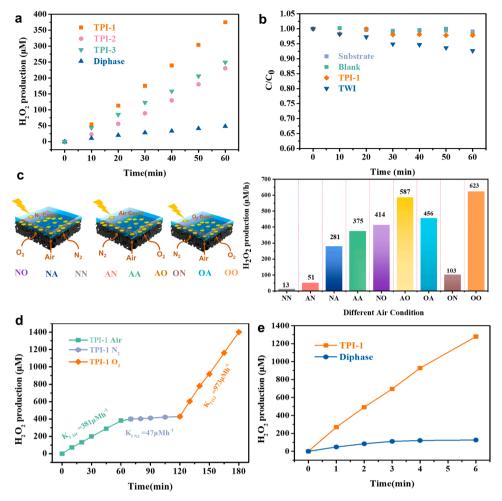


Fig. 4. (a) The photocatalytic generation of  $H_2O_2$  over different system; (b) The photocatalytic decomposition of  $H_2O_2$  over substrate, TPI-1, and TW1,  $C_0(H_2O_2) = 2$  mM; (c) Photocatalytic generation  $H_2O_2$  under different operational conditions, the right panel displays a schematic illustration of the nine operational conditions; (d) The photocatalytic generation of  $H_2O_2$  during a long time; (e) The photocatalytic  $H_2O_2$  over TPI-1 under continuous gas change experiments.

photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> generation performance [33].

X-ray Micro-CT is a powerful tool to analyze the inner space of a material. As presented in Fig. 2a, MF modified by GO and PTFE as the substrate and the diffusion layer, while Na-CvCN is loaded on the one side to form catalyst layer with abundant confined space. The gas diffusion layer is consisted of a loose skeleton and interconnected network with an inter distance of  $\sim 112 \, \mu m$  (Fig. 2b) and the porosity is higher than 99%. Thereby, the hindrance of oxygen mass transfer becomes pretty low, which allows O2 spread directly to the reaction interface. In addition, after coating with rGO and treated by PTFE, the surface of MFGP still keep a high macroporosity (Fig. 2c) and have a stable superhydrophobicity interface with water contact angle (WCA) of 131° (Fig. 2c inset and Fig. S5). For the catalytic layer (Fig. 2d), Na-CvCN is firmly attached to the mesh structure of MFGP, a unique distribution that would make the photocatalyst to fully contact with the oxygen of the diffusion layer, thereby enhancing the performance of photocatalytic production of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Through the analysis of the crosssection (Fig. 2e), the thickness of the catalytic layer is about  $\sim$  500  $\mu$ m. Due to the interconnection of rGO, PTFE, and Na-CvCN, a rich confined microenvironment, conducive to oxygen reduction, was created. Elemental analysis mapping (Fig. 2f, g) also confirms the existence of this interconnection state, with elements such as C, N, O, Na, F presented an overlapping distribution states.

XPS was conducted to analyze the surface chemical compositions and further revealed the interaction between photocatalyst and gas diffusion layer. From the XPS survey (Fig. 3a) of Na-CvCN@MFPG and

Na-CvCN, elements such as C, N, O, and Na are clearly observed in both samples, while element F can only be found in the former, indicating the element F is from the PTFE coated on MFG. As for C1s of Na-CvCN (Fig. 3b), three distinctive peaks located at 284.6, 286.6, and 288.1 eV are corresponding to the carbon impurities (C-C), the C-NHx group, and N=C-N in the plane of aromatic ring. Moreover, a strong and new peak at 292.6 eV was observed in Na-CvCN@MFGP. Further analysis on the element F (Fig. 3c), the strong peak at 689.6 eV can be ascribed to the F element in C-F structure. These analysis clearly indicates the successful modification of MFG via PTFE. Fig. 3d shows the high-resolution of Na 1s, and the peak at 1071.8 eV is a great indicator to evaluate the structural stability of the catalyst.

#### 3.2. Photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production on the triphase system

We firstly optimized the coating amount of different Na-CvCN and the concentration of the sacrificial agent ethanol. Fig. S6a shows the  $\rm H_2O_2$  production performance under different loading amount of Na-CvCN on catalyst layer. We can see that as the catalyst loading increases, the  $\rm H_2O_2$  activity was also increased. But it is worth noting that there is no great difference between the three loading. This is because the area of MFGP is relatively small, both the three different loading amounts of Na-CvCN can fully cover the catalytic surface. Therefore, we choose the catalyst of  $100~\mu L$  as the default loading. We also test the photocatalytic  $\rm H_2O_2$  generation in solution with different concentration of ethanol. From the Fig. S6b, the concentration ratio of 0.5:9.5

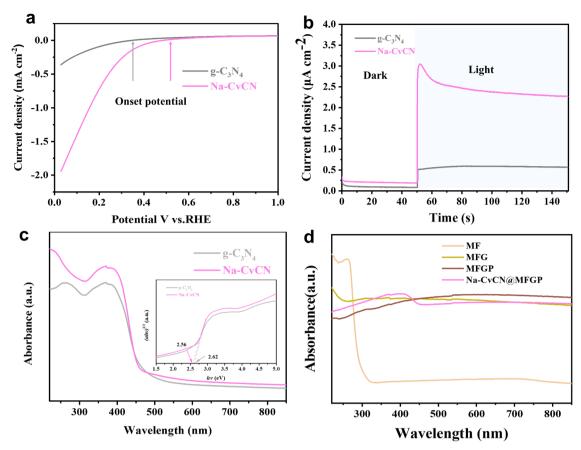


Fig. 5. (a) The linear scan curve of g- $C_3N_4$  and Na-CvCN measured at 1600 rpm on rotating disk electrode (Pine) under  $O_2$  saurated Phosphate buffer (pH = 6.8); (b) The photocurrent curve of g- $C_3N_4$  and Na-CvCN electrode (coating on FTO glass) measured under 0.1 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> solution. UV-vis DRS spectra (c) and (c inset) corresponding plots of transformed Kubelka-Munk function vs. photo energy of g- $C_3N_4$  and Na-CvCN; The UV-vis DRS spectra (d) of MF, MFG, MFGP, and Na-CvCN@MFGP.

exhibited the best  $H_2O_2$  yield rate (483  $\mu M/h)$ , and the  $H_2O_2$  generated rate is similar in solution with 10% and 15% ( $\sim380~\mu M/h$ ). Interestingly, the photocatalytic  $H_2O_2$  performance in high EtOH concentration solution was decreased (240  $\mu M/h$ ), owing to the high concentration of ethanol solution can destroy the three-phase interface, more aqueous solution will penetrate into the catalytic layer, thereby reducing the three-phase interface and confined environment. Therefore, in order to have a good comparison with other benchmarks, we chose 10% ethanol concentration as the model experiment condition.

The performance of photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> generation over different interface systems were then measured (Fig. 4a). In all systems, the accumulated H2O2 concentration after 1 h reaction increased at a linear rate (zero-order kinetic), indicating that the oxygen concentration is sufficient to participate in the 2e ORR. The best H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production rate  $(375 \,\mu\text{M/h})$  is obtained over TPI-1, much higher than that in diphase (48 μM/h). In fact, the measured concentration of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> is determined by the rate constant of zero-order formation  $(K_f)$  and the first-order kinetics decomposition  $(K_d)$  of  $H_2O_2$ . The generation of  $H_2O_2$  can be measured by the formula:  $[H_2O_2] = (k_f/k_d)\{1 - \exp(-k_d t)\}$  [37–39]. According to the decomposition results (Fig. 4b), TPI-1 displays an extremely low  $K_d$  constant (0.02), much lower than that of the two-phase system, which are attributed to the unique microenvironment. In order to further explore the contribution of oxygen from the gas and water phase, the production of H2O2 under different gas atmospheres were measured in the TPI-1 system. The influence of gas in the diffusion layer on the reaction was investigated by introducing N2 into the liquid phase to decrease the concentration of O<sub>2</sub> in reaction solution (Figs. 4c, and S7). When the gas diffusion layer is permeated with N<sub>2</sub> (NN), the formation of  $H_2O_2$  is almost stagnated (13  $\mu$ M/h). Air or  $O_2$  is

injected into the gas diffusion layer (NA or NO), the reaction rates are greatly enhanced, which are 281 and 414  $\mu$ M/h, respectively. When the reaction solution is returned to the air-saturated aqueous solution, the gas diffusion layer is covered with N2 (AN), the formation rate of H2O2 is pretty low (51  $\mu$ M/h), lower than that of air (AA, 375  $\mu$ M/h), and O<sub>2</sub> (AO 587  $\mu$ M/h) (Figs. 4c, and S8). Moreover, when O<sub>2</sub> is bubbled into the reaction solution, the gas diffusion layer is covered with N2 (ON), the formation rate of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> is also low (103 μM/h), lower than that of air (OA, 456 µM/h), and O2 (OO, 623 µM/h). Continuous gas change experiments (Fig. 4d) also proved that the gas from the gas transport layer plays a key role in the reaction. When the reaction time was further extended to 6 h (Fig. 4e), we found that TPI-1 could still maintain a nearly linear growth rate, while the growth rate of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in diphase was almost stagnated. The stagnated growth rates in diphase system is belonging to the poor oxygen supply interface. In the diphase system, the solubility of oxygen is very low (8 mg/L) at room temperature and pressure. In addition, the diffusion rate of O2 in water to the Na-CvCN is pretty slow  $(2.1 \times 10^{-5} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1})$  [40]. While, in the triphase, O<sub>2</sub> can be rapidly transferred through the hydrophobic diffusion layer to the surface of Na-CvCN to participate in the oxygen reduction reaction with a diffusion rate of  $2.0 \times 10^{-1}$  cm<sup>2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, much faster than that in water. Based on the above control experiments and long-term test, the following conclusions can be obtained: (1) the H2O2 was generated through oxygen reduction process rather than others; (2) O2 consumed at Na-CvCN surface was quickly resupplied through gas diffusion layer side; (3) the contribution of O<sub>2</sub> in the gas diffusion layer to the overall production of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> was dominant. The production rate of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> at different wavelengths were also investigated (Fig. S9). As the wavelength increases, the production rate of H2O2 decreases, indicating that

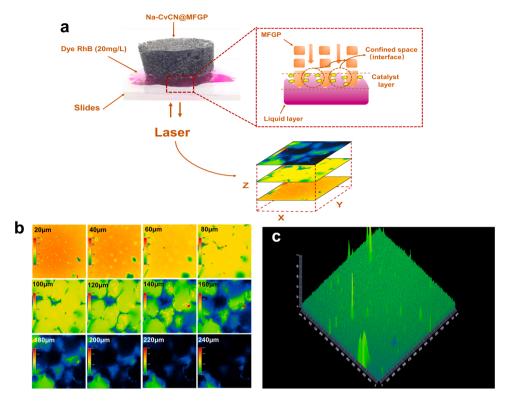


Fig. 6. (a) Schematic illustration of the method used to investigate the triphase interface by confocal laser scanning microscopy (excited at 561 nm); (b) The cross-sectional fluorescence images along the z axis; (c) Confocal 3D reconstruction image of (b) the solid-liquid-gas interface (RhB liquid droplet on the surface of MFGP).

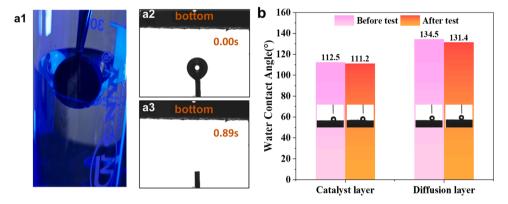


Fig. 7. (a1) picture of the Na-CvCN@MFGP immersed into water by an external force; (a2, a3) the gas contact angle at the bottom of the Na-CvCN@MFGP (diffusion layer) measured underwater; (b) The WCA of catalyst layer and diffusion layer before and after 6 h photocatalytic  $H_2O_2$  generation test and corresponding WCA images.

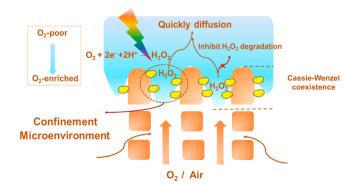


Fig. 8. The illustration of solid-liquid-gas triphase interface with tubular confined microenvironment for photocatalytic  $H_2O_2$  generation.

the photocatalytic activity in the visible light region needs to be further studied.

The stability of the catalyst is very important for the photocatalytic reaction. Therefore, the cycling tests of photocatalytic  $\rm H_2O_2$  generation over Na-CvCN@MFGP under TPI-1triphase were also measured (Fig. S10a). After ten cycles, Na-CvCN@MFGP system still showed an excellent  $\rm H_2O_2$  production rate (312  $\mu \rm M/h$ ), indicating a good stability. Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy analysis of Na-CvCN on the surface of MFGP showed that the cyano group defects located at 2180 cm $^{-1}$  still existed stably before and after the reaction (Fig. S10b). At the same time, XPS spectrum was also performed to reveal the surface elements of reaction interface. As shown in the Fig. S10c, the peak at 689.6 eV can be ascribed to the F element in C-F structure, which indicates that the PTFE molecules at the interface are stable to the support the three-phase interface. The peak at 1071.8 eV is corresponded to the Na element in Na-CvCN (Fig. S10d). Therefore, Na element was also

stable before and after test, although the Na content on the catalyst surface was very low.

#### 3.3. Mechanism insights

The rotating disk electrode test is an effective method to monitor the oxygen reduction process. We tested the linear scan curves of Na-CvCN and g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> at 1600 rpm under O<sub>2</sub> saurated Phosphate buffer (pH = 6.8). As shown in the Fig. 5a, the onset potential of Na-CvCN is 20 mV higher than that of pure g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>. The current density of Na-CvCN is also significantly higher than that of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, indicating that Na-CvCN has an excellent oxygen reduction ability. In addition, the photocurrent of Na-CvCN exhibited a more strong and distinctive photocurrent than g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>. The above results shows that Na-CvcN as a photocatalyst has excellent photo-generated charge separation ability, and can efficiently reduce oxygen to further produce H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. To understand the key role of triphase interface, we then explored the light absorption properties of the interface. From the UV–vis DRS of g-C $_3N_4$  and Na-CvCN, the absorption range of Na-CvCN has increased significantly (Fig. 5c), which means that the band gap has narrowed (Fig. 5c inset). This is due to the change in the molecular structure of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> [33]. Fig. 5d shows the light absorption characteristics of the substrates. It can be found that the initial MF has a weak light absorption ability between 325 and 820 nm. After coating a layer of rGO and PTFE, the light absorption ability of MFGP is greatly enhanced. The strong light absorption capacity of the substrate enables the loaded Na-CvCN to make full use of solar energy to generate photo-generated electrons.

Fig. 6a shows the schematic illustration of the CLSM analysis of the catalyst layer. Na-CvCN is placed inverted on rhodanine B(RhB) solution with fluorescence. The penetration depth and cover information of RhB into the catalytic interface along the Z axis can be directly observed through the reconstruction of the tomography images to form a threedimensional graph. As seen in Fig. 6b, the color changes from bright red to green refers to the changes of fluorescence intensity from strong to weak. The cross-sectional fluorescence images along the z axis at 40 µm still shows bright red, indicating occupied by the luminous solution. At the z-axis position of 80-220 µm, a distinctly non-continuous interface appears, indicating the coexistence interface of Cassie-Wenzel coexistence state (Fig. S11), which is considered as the ideal triphase structure for O2 supply form air to Na-CvCN. In addition, the color darkens or even disappears from bright green, indicating that the penetration of the luminous solution becomes weaker and even disappears. At the z-axis position of 240 µm, a large, dark non-fluorescent area appears, indicating that the RhB cannot penetrate this depth. Interestingly, from the 3D reconstruction image (Fig. 6c), it can be found that the penetration path of solution is a tubular structure. Thus it can be assumed that the micro-environment in which oxygen reduction to generate H2O2 occurs is in a confined space of tubular-like. In this micro-environment, oxygen is quickly involved in the interface reaction through the gas diffusion layer to generate high concentrations of H2O2 and then the generated H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> will rapidly spreading to low-concentration reaction solutions, which fully suppress the decomposition of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>.

The stability of the three-phase catalytic interface is essential for the continuous photocatalytic reaction. The wettability–controlled structure of TPI-1 interfaces was further investigated. The hydrophobicity of the side of Na-CvCN@MFGP can be observed in Fig. 7a1. When immersing the Na-CvCN@MFGP into water by external force, a nonwetting Cassie–Baxter interface generated between the sponge and the surrounding water owing to the entrapped air residing in the rough surface of the Na-CvCN@MFGP [41]. The ability of the gas diffusion layer to entrap gas in the water was measured by the underwater gas contact angle, as shown in Fig. 7a1 and a2. The bottom of Na-CvCN@MFGP (diffusion layer) can quickly capture the gas in the water within a second, indicating a superhydrophobic surface and powerful ability of gas diffusion. The stable wettability of the catalytic interface is extremely important for maintaining the gas-liquid-solid three-phase catalytic reaction interface.

The water contact angle of NaCvCN-MFGP were measured before and after photocatalytic production of  $\rm H_2O_2$  (6 h). It can be seen that before and after the reaction, both the catalytic layer and the gas diffusion layer exhibit a stable water contact angle (Fig. 7b), indicating a stable gas-liquid-solid three-phase catalytic reaction. The WCA of catalyst layer was slightly decreased to 111.2° from 112.5°, and the WCA of the gas diffusion layer was also decreased slightly, indicating the stabilizing of triphase interface.

#### 4. Conclusion

Accordingly, a solid-liquid-gas triphase interface with tubular confined microenvironment was successfully applied to enhance the photocatalytic  $H_2O_2$  generation and inhibit  $H_2O_2$  decomposition (Fig. 8). The gas diffusion layer, formed by coating rGO and PTFE on melamine foam, has a high porosity (99%), which allows the  $O_2$  in the air can be quickly transferred to the catalytic layer, greatly boosting the oxygen concentration on the surface of the catalyst. At the same time, the formation of tubular confined space in the catalyst layer not only can ensure adequate light absorption but also greatly inhibit the decomposition of  $H_2O_2$ . Our results show that the overall reaction activity can be significantly improved by the micro-environment engineering (wettability and architecture). It is hoped that the results of this work can provide new ideas and methods for the application of three-phase systems to photocatalytic  $H_2O_2$  generation.

#### CRediT authorship contribution statement

Lei Chen: Methodology, Investigation, Data curation, Formal analysis, Writing – original draft. Shan Li, Zhi Yang, and Cheng Chen: Writing – review & editing, Investigation, Formal analysis. Chiheng Chu: Writing – review & editing, Formal analysis. Baoliang Chen: Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Funding acquisition.

### **Declaration of Competing Interest**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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#### Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at doi:10.1016/j.apcatb.2022.121066.

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